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ABSTRACT

A model for planning, monitoring, and evaluating human service internships and field experiences is described. The model is organized around work roles and can easily be adopted for general job evaluation beyond intern placements. Since the curriculum should contain the generalists' skills plus specialized skills representative of defined job positions, the paradigm would retain presently defined generic knowledges and skills and permit identification of job specializations. The model contains three taxonomies: client types, institution types, and work role or job types. Client types are intended to differentiate human services clients into major categories of personal problems for which help is provided. Institutions include hospitals, outpatient facilities, group homes, activity centers, education institutions, and penal settings, while job types include administration, planning, counseling, education, and outreach services. Another feature of the model is to identify specialized skills required by the job type. Finally, provisions are made for recording the basic data regarding intern identification, evaluator identification, and total numbers of hours of training. Attention is also directed to field experience training standards and implications for certification. (SW)

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A Three Parameter Model for Planning, Monitoring and Evaluating Human Services

Field Experience

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A Three Parameter Model for Planning, Monitoring and Evaluating Human Services Field Experience

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A Three Parameter Model for Planning, Monitoring and Evaluating Human Services Field Experience

Field experience and internships are generally considered to be a necessary part of most professional development programs, yet they are seldom managed and evaluated effectively. The seriousness of this problem becomes apparent when one realizes that the field experience is expected to account for approximately one third of Human Services professional training (James, 1981). Although internships in different professions are commonly weak (the reader might reflect for a moment on the quality of their own intern experience as required by their respective schools, if indeed there were such requirements) a new profession cannot afford a complacency that appears to be the case with some well-established professions. Common complaints include vagueness regarding learning goals, lack of demonstrated relations between theory and practice, and ambiguous supervision by either agency or academic supervisors. Some students have reported to us that they felt as though they had been left to their own devices to learn what they could.

Regardless of how diligently some program directors in Human Services may be working to insure a valuable intern or field experience, the fact is there exists no comprehensive model at present for planning, monitoring and evaluating this part of the curriculum. The burden of this monograph to provide such a model. Since the model is organized around work roles it can easily be adopted for general job evaluation beyond intern placements.

In the process of searching for a solution to this problem there appeared to be five major subproblems:

1. What is the overall curricular plan into which field experience must fit? Such a plan in turn must be derived from a definition of the Human

Services profession in general terms. Both definitions must be sufficiently concrete so that plans can be defended with logic and evidence.

2. What can be learned in field experience that would be superior to, different from, or not possible in the classroom?

3. What is the nature of the cooperative relationship between an educational institution and the agency which agrees to take interns; and who does what part of the evaluation?

4. Summarizing these three questions, what are the criteria for planning the intern experience and selecting data to gather?

5. In the process of answering the questions raised above we have constructed a model logically derived from empirical experience in Human Services, and owing much to those of the medical and other professions. The question then must be raised, how does this model integrate with existing standards and guidelines as established by Human Services professional organizations?

We suggest that if intern experience, and the other parts of the program as well, is to represent quality learning defensible before the most probing academic review committees, all of these questions must be addressed. The raising of these issues and seeking answers implies and defines the formulation of a Human Services profession. Risking such definition in an emergent profession is inherently subjective and therefore undoubtedly controversial. It is no different from any other profession.[1]

I. The Structure of Curricula

Because professional programs are job preparation by definition, the central organizing principle for the curriculum must focus on what jobs are being prepared for and the skills required to carry out those jobs.[2] However, even narrowing the problem of college curriculum to professional

specialization leaves an enormously complex question for the simple reason that many types of jobs, reflecting innumerable variations of client services and types, taking place in different institutional settings, all require specification (McPheeters, 1982). We have distilled these variables into a three-parameter model for defining any profession which includes client types, institution types and job types.

Translating all of possible combinations of these variables into a quantitative image quickly indicates the scope of complexity. The SREB, in their extensive analysis of work roles and job types derived thirteen basic roles and functions comprising human services jobs. Dr. Jacobs distilled 31 different institutional types from the MIRA (Midlands Information Referral Agency) 1979 directory of 550 entries. In addition to these institutional types Dr. Jacobs identified twelve basic client types. By client types, we mean identification of classes of client problems requiring treatment or some form of helping services from the community. While details of terminology and selection of class factors would be debatable, in general these numbers would represent a conservative interpretation of present literature. Multiplying all of these numbers (13 x 31 x 12) would indicate the range of specialized combinations of skills and knowledges a curriculum for the total profession would need to address.[3] As one can readily see the total comes to an impossible 4836 theoretical specializations across the entire profession.

We believe the three interacting parameters provide a useful definition of the Human Services profession; however, it should be clear that, in total as currently defined they remain too complex and unmanageable for such definition. Curriculum planners thus have two alternatives: 1) to factor out the common denominators of all job specializations, and present these as the generic curriculum assuming specialization will be learned on the job; and

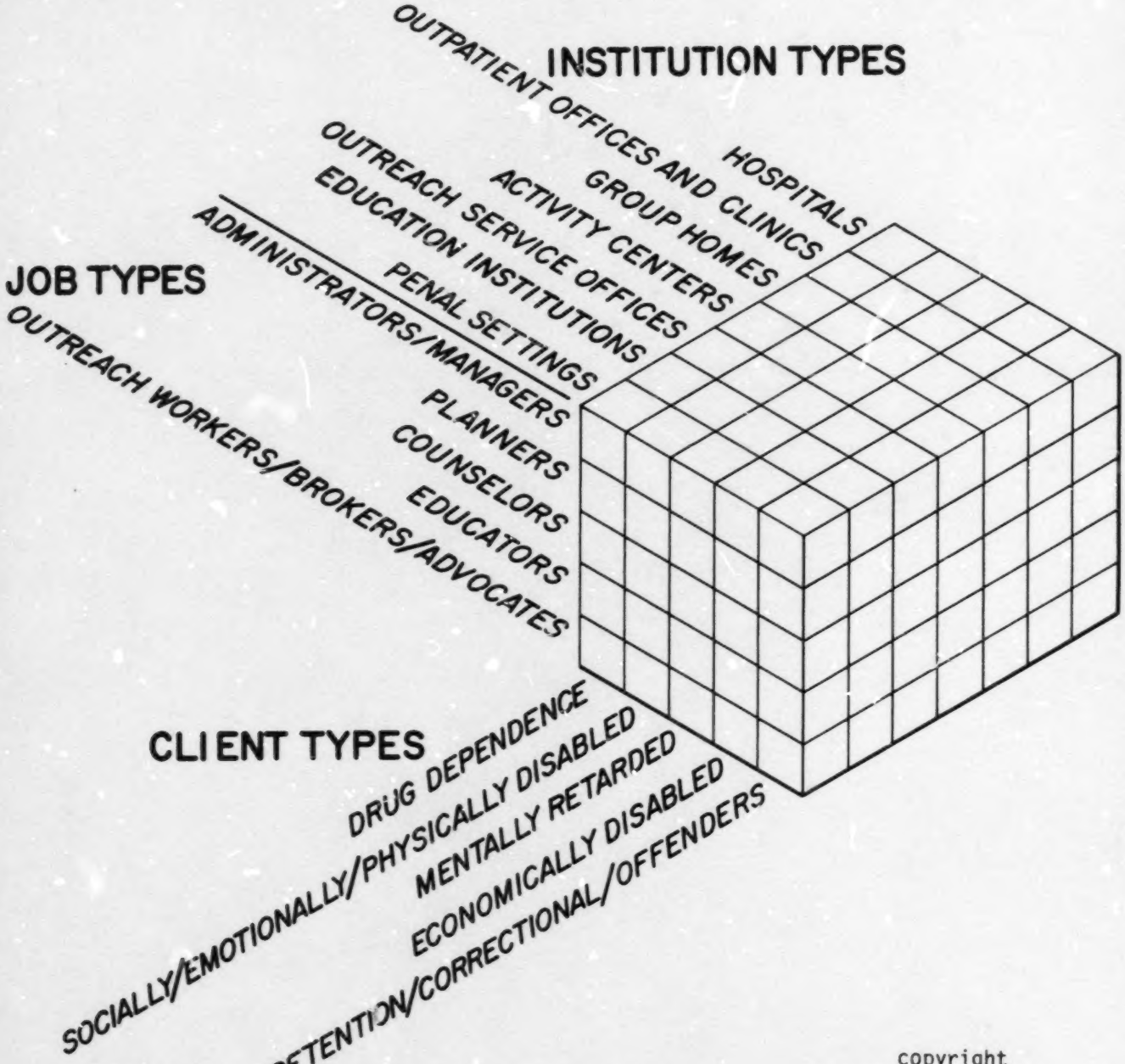
2) reclassifying and reducing the subcategories to more manageable numbers. Actually both actions should be taken for the following reasons:

1. No subject matter can be studied in the abstract, unrelated to the context of practice in real jobs.
2. As a corollary to no. 1, general skills are effective in practice only as related to specific problems and situations (i.e., with different client types). The subtle differences between these situations represent crucial elements of practice.
3. General skills are appropriately factored out and taught in common for the sake of efficiency. However, this can never represent the entire curriculum because the student would be inadequately prepared with enough specific skills and knowledge to qualify for any real job. Curricular decisions regarding job types for which students will be prepared must be declared and planned for by the educational institution. No institution can be everything to everyone. Therefore, in addition to the generic preparation we believe that this requires the school to declare with some specificity the categories of jobs for which their staffs are qualified and competent to prepare students.

In summary then, the curriculum for any particular school should contain the generalist skills plus specialized skills representative of defined job positions. Our paradigm thus would retain presently defined generic knowledges and skills and permit identification of job specializations. As a result we reduced the aforementioned three taxonomies as shown on the following page.

1. Client types (problems) from 12 to 5.
2. Institution types from 31 to 7.
3. Work role or job types from 13 to 5.

STRUCTURE OF PROFESSION MODEL WITH 3 PARAMETERS FOR EACH UNIT



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Categories appear in Figure 1 and are briefly defined thereafter. As stated earlier, these categories are subjective, presented as tentative, and, therefore, debatable. However, the point is not to require acceptance of this particular list but rather the concept of the paradigm.[4] The categories we derived should indeed be subjected to further scrutiny and refinement. The criteria applied in determining the final taxonomies followed well accepted standards and are structured according to a defined problem (in this case the problem we defined was, "What are the skills and knowledges needed to fill identifiable jobs in the community that are specified as human services positions by the profession?"). They are structured so that each segment is essentially different from each other. In total we believe this is an efficient and meaningful model for defining the Human Services profession, --meaningful, because this model seemed to offer a simple and elegant method for describing what the workers in the profession generally do, yet with enough specificity to guide generic and specific current development. The organizing principle is that a class of jobs can best be defined by including one of each of these dimensions or parameters (client problem, institution type and job type with that institution); none can be omitted from such definition. In total, the number of classes within each parameter defines the profession comprehensively.

The type of model is not new; Guilford found it useful for his "Structure of Intelligence" paradigm, and Trimble used it for defining a curriculum for the social sciences.[5] It should be emphasized as well, that the choice of categories within each group was distilled from the considerable survey work sponsored by NIMH and conducted by SREB. The logical principles for utilizing this model for defining Human Services should be clear, and they are: the defining of classes of problems for which services are needed, the

institutional settings and finally, the identification of job types according to the administrative organizational theory for departmentalization within those institutions. It is not difficult to anticipate that the reader coming from a unique professional history and with a different philosophical background might name some different categories. For instance, there is no specific identification here of maintenance homes for the aged (rest or retirement homes) as a separate item. The reason is, if one is attempting to reduce the categories to a fundamental core, similar characteristics of several other settings will identify a group. Therefore, we classed rest homes for the aged with a more general class which we called "group homes" because, while services for the aged will vary considerably, those requiring residential treatment other than a hospital would call for a common set of managerial skills and knowledges for residential settings. Problems such as security, visiting privileges, food preparation, visiting hours, educational activities and the like would be reasonably common in all residential settings. The two other parameters (job type and client or problem type) would appropriately identify the specific skills and knowledges as the basis for curricula. Different lists of items within the model could be justified by a different logic, however, the primary rule should prevail, that the number of items in a category must be as few as possible for the model to be workable (ideally 5-8). However debatable the idea of uniqueness might be, the final criterion is the degree of agreement with the profession which will ultimately define the conventions.

A brief description of the paradigm is as follows:

1. Client types are intended to differentiate human services clients into major categories of personal problems for which help is provided.

a. Drug dependence includes abuse of legal or illegal drugs, medications, or other substances ingested or injected, including alcohol.

b. Socially/emotionally disabled includes individuals with personal psychological or emotional disorders.

c. Mentally retarded problems include persons with below borderline intellectual capacity.

d. Economic disability is perhaps the largest single category and may be a contributing component in many of the other categories.

e. Detention/correctional/offenders as a category would seem to be self-explanatory; this is to say that population who have committed illegal acts or engaged in anti-social behavior.

2. Institution types were ordered as described above, with the primary criterion of representing essentially different managerial skills. Other criteria would, of course, imply client types. For instance, halfway houses imply certain types of clients. We have not attempted to separate out those client types and institution types according to age or social class. This would contribute to increasing the taxonomies back into unmanageable sizes where too fine a fix is made on the definitions. For instance, interventions for, say, alcoholics might be subfactored into such specializations as involuntary detox units, voluntary counseling centers, medical exam units, or follow-up therapy, some of which could be carried out in different institutional settings and by persons with basically different training. It is the coming together of the three parameters for any single job that sorts out such complexities and provides the logic for curricula which has been derived from field practice as it has evolved.

With these qualifications in mind we ordered our taxonomy of institutions as follows:

a. hospitals
b. outpatient offices and clinics
c. group homes
d. activity centers
e. outreach service offices
f. education institutions
g. penal settings

3. Job types, as explained above were ordered according to the rules for departmentalization from management literature. We found thirteen roles and functions and the 40 categories of human services activities as defined in the past by the SRSB reports to be useful for some detailed parts of job descriptions; however, the overlap within these categories was considerable. More detailed descriptions defending the theories of departmentalization would be far beyond the scope of this statement. However, it should be stated here that general job types will be quite similar in most complex institutions organized mainly for direct services to people. Once again the uniqueness of human services as a profession is quickly defined when the other parameters are brought into the equation. Thus, such general categories of jobs as administrator, planner, counselor are of a particular type for particular services within specified institutions. (Even our category of outreach worker, a job type seemingly unique to human services has close parallels in business and industry where the servicing of some product is carried out.) Taking all of these factors into account our list of job types should represent commonly understood and familiar functions. Generally, no single job is representative of any one of these items exclusively. Seldom if ever does an individual manage only, counsel only, or educate only. However, this is equally true in job definitions for all professions dealing with complex functions. The name

(or title) for the category of work represents the primary function for which responsibility must be accepted with the understanding that other functions are also performed in the process of achieving an identifiable result. Thus, we identified:

a. administration
b. planning
c. counseling
d. education
e. outreach services

The Make-up of a Curricular Unit

The three-parameter model described above is intended to indicate the least number of considerations that would be required to define some curricular unit whether it be a declared major field of study within a single school, any individual course, or an internship. As stated above, any school which sponsors a human services program must declare what it is preparing students for in terms of known jobs in the field. This choice must be made on the same basis required for any program planning; this is to say, according to the legal mandate of the institution, community need, the general institutional plan, and the resources of the institution. These guidelines provide the basis for planning and evaluating. Any single curricular unit is organized as follows. First, a general problem must be defined which provides the basic organizing logic for that unit (say the treatment of an alcoholic). Second, the solution to that problem would be determined by one each of the three parameters, i.e., the counseling problems in a resident treatment setting (classified in our schema as a group home). Third, each of the three parameters would be broken down into appropriate constitutional parts as indicated by the situation, and these parts would most likely be defined in terms of basic disciplinary areas such as psychological problems, physiological problems, social problems, and the like. It is the total pattern of courses that

guides the job preparation and must be defensible in terms of the three parameters. It is precisely because no school can be everything to everybody that specialization choices must be made for defensible programming. Finally, the pattern of declared specialization and general human services program goals in a given institution defines the context into which field experience must be specifically organized.

In sum then, a human services program will design a curriculum around:

1. An introduction to the entire field of the profession, indicating its boundaries in terms of client types, institutional types, job types, and generalizable skill areas that cut across all activity.
2. Areas of specialization, based on selection of specific client types, the institutional settings in which those particular services are delivered, the etiology of those client and institutional types and specialized skill areas necessary to deliver those services.
3. A combination of classroom experience to disseminate and discuss knowledge and learn sources of information, and actual experience in working institutions is required to put the flesh and blood of understanding into abstract facts and theories from the classroom.

The function of the academic preparation is broad, spanning certain generalizations of the entire profession as well as attempting to provide models for personal growth and social values. Contrarily, the function of human service organizations is much more narrow and specialized and will be elaborated upon later.

II. Elements of Planning a Specific Internship

The major question with which we began "How to Plan, Monitor and Evaluate a Field Experience in the Human Services?" has been answered in part by having established the boundaries and structure of the profession as the basis for

curricula. That curricula we found is primarily constructed upon an understanding of the classes of needs of a specific group of clients and preparation needed to plan and deliver services in an identifiable group of organizations set up to deliver those services. We further recognized that an identifiable set of skills would need to be possessed by the practitioners delivering those services, some of which were specific to client and organization types and some more general, cutting across all arenas of activity. Based upon these assumptions, what are the guidelines for planning a specific internship experience? And derivatively, what can be be learned from field experience that cannot be learned from the classroom? How might a field placement be selected that provides the appropriate and specific mix of learning needs? Who can best evaluate the different segments of learning anticipated?

Field Experience as a Part of Overall Learning

What can be learned from it?

1. The first factor in describing value in field experience is the most obvious and immediate--the opportunity to get a feeling for the everyday life in a segment of practice. First, the meeting of clients and beginning to understand them and the nature of the difficult and complex problems that are limiting their lives is our first level learning. Second is the grappling with problems of organizational life within the institution of delivery. Organizations, by definition, are aggregates of working teams. The processes necessary to integrate a particular group of individual specialists into a working team and, in turn, supporting that team with needed records, financial resources, facilities, transportation, and any other necessities of support combine in unique ways in each institutional type. However, this is not only the problem of managers. In a

sense everyone on the team must not only manage, but also understand how management processes relate to their own work and how the system as a whole works. Finally, intern experience is an opportunity for the student to practice one's own skills that heretofore has been practiced vicariously or in the abstract through simulations, games, reading case studies, discussions or hearing of anecdotes in the classroom. But none of those abstracted experiences can be matched by, or understood in depth until one meets them in-the-round. This is high drama where the participants confront real life and its successes and failures and is a many fold more meaningful than simulation; confronting our own emotions, testing our temperament, style and values in dealing with a particular type of client, and confronting the tension of difficult decisions that once made have decisive influence on others, in short, the testing of our ability to live with all of this and find out how well we can commit ourselves to this life is the first and most important element of field experience.

2. Field experience will have only limited educational value unless it is accompanied by analysis. (We find how chaotic and puzzling raw experience can be.) It is essentially in the attempt at bringing order to that experience, in attempting to restructure it that we become confronted with the whole purpose of intellectual endeavor. This is to say, the bringing of theories to bear on the solution of problems. At this point the basic disciplines merge. Specialized knowledge must undergo transmutation into an interdisciplinary form. No real-life problem is sociological only, or psychological only, or physiological only. The real meaning of our knowledge then is deomonstrated in our ability to apply it, to merge theory and practice. The sorting out of large problems into smaller more manageable clusters is part of this endeavor which must be guided by the instructors

and agency supervisors. Here we attempt to understand the etiology of a particular client himself with a particular problem, or more likely a cluster of problems. Theories of personality, or physiology or sociology come together to form a whole, which we hope will be the helping of the client. What we normally call "skill" is usually defined as the effectiveness with which one can actually utilize a select group of theories to solve client problems. Skills include how well the intern can identify significant client problems, how clearly he can express himself verbally, what knowledge he can bring to bear on solving a Niagara of small, peripheral but related problems. Skills also include how one gets along with fellow workers, with clients, and with persons from other agencies who might be involved. Finally, we must ask, can the student integrate all of these acts into effective help for a client? Thus, the student has an opportunity to be judged on his ability to bring theoretical understanding to bear on practice.

3. None of what has been said above necessarily suggests how all of the fragmented experiences and skills related to a field expeience take on a unity that adds up to the successful completion of a job. Too often we evaluate skills, knowledge or values as individual items and the inference is that these automatically add up to tell us how well a job is being done. Departmentation, of work, is an attempt to get at this question, that is, "how do we define a division of labor in a way that results can be planned and evaluated?" Thus, jobs must be defined for at least two reasons; to tell us if the <u>overall</u> responsibility is being achieved and secondly, to what extent does the individual demonstrate the skills considered necessary to carry out that job? Both are important types of information and the previous section attempted to explicate this latter

concern. Thus, successful intern positions must be underpinned by an approapriate job definition against which assessment can measure the degree of overall achievement. Is the individual in question a successful counselor, manager or planner; by what standards and evidence is such assessment made? This definition is the crucial part of any job evaluation, and one which should be included in evaluation of the intern experience as well.

It has been the experience of the authors that, indeed, many agencies are deficient in their drawing up of job descriptions. This situation requires that we offer to work with that agency in writing the student's job description so that an important part of learning can take place. The student should, among other things, know what an adequate job description should look like, a difficult, complex and subtle management function.

These three major dimensions of field experience (feeling for the job, recognition, and analysis of individual problems, and overall job effectiveness) indicate what the basic elements of planning and evaluation are to be if full advantage is to be taken of this learning opportunity.

How is Placement Decided?

We have specified three major elements to any professional education program: 1) identification of a specific class of services to a specific type of clients; 2) taking place in a specific group of organizational types; and finally, 3) all of this implies a specific set of skills which must be learned. The questions now are, how do we bring these three variables together to form a coherent field experience, and how is comprehensiveness to be defined. Clearly, any one field experience represents a sampling of a small set of each of these three parameters. Certification requirements call for at least two different agency and client placements in addition to demanding

minimum levels of competency in the BARS interpersonal skills. However, this still does not give us sufficient guidance for planning. As we see it, the pitfalls are these:

1. The client type and institutional setting are bound to each other by necessity, but will anything other than general skills be evaluated?
2. A student might be "turned loose" in an agency, just to get experience. If this occurs (s)he may satisfy requirement #1 above (p. 11, the getting a feeling for the profession) but not much else.
3. To what extent is theory really being applied to practice with a close coherence between the two. There are two extreme possibilities: a job may be learned in a rather empirical and untheoretical way (i.e., this is how it is done!), or someone may try to establish the validity of a particular theory and analyze events too narrowly, only in terms of that single theory. In neither case does the student necessarily learn powerful problem solving skills based in reality of effective practice.
4. To what extent has the school defined their program in terms which defines appropriately the areas of specialization? We have all spoken to people who believe they should only teach some general skills in the human service professions with the understanding that the student would learn the rest when they are employed. What would be possible to learn in such a curricula could be superficial. Counseling, for instance, is not done in the abstract, nor is any other skill so practiced. Counseling schizophrenics or depressed poverty stricken people, or drug addicts, or offenders in a rehabilitation center each require very different knowledge, in addition to general skills.

Our central organizing principle is that actual job classifications (which should reflect the student's major field of study) must serve, as

far as possible, as the primary basis for planning the internship. The student wishing to learn how to manage rest homes ideally should be placed as an assistant to a rest home manager; a person majoring in teaching retardeds should assist a teacher, etc. If the student is unsure at first where he or she may wish to specialize, some field observation sampling may be called for at first. However, once a selection(s) is made, based on available placements and the expertise of the college staff, the intern can be evaluated on a coherent set of knowledges.

Who Can Best Evaluate the Segments of Learning Identified?

What we have suggested so far is that a logically defined set of learnings can occur and be evaluated in field (or internship) experience, but the question of who does the evaluating remains. Summarizing these discrete areas of evaluation would be:

1. The students feeling for and general commitment to the chosen area of specialization.
2. The content areas of knowledge required to serve selected types of clients. These would include the etiology of client problems, and the theory and practice of intervention techniques, (i.e., data to collect and the basis for evaluation and problem solution.)
3. A set of applied skills related to nos. 1 and 2 above, evaluated in terms of overall job achievement rating.

Clearly the school will be interested in all of these. but an agency supervisor will conduct the primary evaluation of no. 3. Furthermore, there may exist some commonality between the evaluation interests of school and agency. For instance, the agency may be interested in skill ratings in addition to overall job ratings. A division of labor in evaluation between the school and agency must be reconciled. However, an additional point must be

strongly made regarding the division of labor as related to primary interests between school and agency. An intership or field experience is, by definition, serving two different organizations whose interests diverge at some point. This is to say, the primary function of the school is to educate and that of the agency is to serve their clients. By cooperative agreement they choose to function in a common ground of their two goals, but to have either party carry out the entire evaluation is likely to detract from the full possibilities of the intern experience. Only half the job will be done if evaluation is not a joint venture.

III. The Nature of the Cooperative Relationship Between School and Agency

When we raise the question how is an intern experience to be planned and evaluated, the question of agency relationships must also be examined before we can proceed. The intern faces two major forces, pulling at times in different directions; on the one hand that internship experience is part of a larger professional college training program in which it fulfills down a particular division of labor. That division of labor must be spelled out and shown to be integrated with, and complementary to, the general goals of the professional requirement as we have asserted. On the other hand, the intern becomes a member of another agency program, a visitor to another world with other customs and duties to satisfy. To the extent that the nature and functions of each of these programs are spelled out and the particular common interest in the internship is also spelled out (this is to say, just how the intern is to satisfy both goals), then the experience is likely to be a fruitful one.

Intern (field experience) can and often is difficult and complex. The student intern is placed, or finds a place in some agency and hopefully has meaningful professional experience. Actual practice no doubt lies between two

extremes of laissez faire and structured order. In the interest of improving the planning of intern experience let us examine some basic goals of the cooperating parties in this enterprise.

Even with public agencies, economics imposes a limit to altruism. One of their major pay-offs is in the form of useful labor performed. By definition this amounts to accountability to satisfy the requirements of necessary professional work within the agency. Generally, articulation of theories, or of the social function of other agencies within the profession, or knowledge of skills unrelated to that particular job situation are not normally the primary concern of the agency. They want the job done.[6]

One solution to this problem, at least superficially, would seem to be by planning to teach theory in the classroom and have the agency agree to do specific job training. While this would be a clean method of handling the situation it poses serious drawbacks. From the standpoint of academe, theories have limited meaning unless they are made manifest in real experience. As a matter of fact, this is why we believe the organization of courses to totally around the study of bodies of theory results in sterile learning (abstract game playing). Professional competence requires course planning should be the other way around. It should raise significant issues (problems) then examine possible solutions, each of which indicates an appropriate methodology for solving the problem as defined. For instance, rather than organizing a counseling course around different theories of personality as an abstract and encyclopedic exercise in memorization, the course should be organized by an actual problem such as, "How can this alcoholic be cured?" In this way theories can be tested or application analyzed. This method of curricular design would also be consistent with the needs of practice in the field and therefore be most useful to the cooperating agency. But then this

complicates the learning needs of the intern, rendering the definition of learning more complex. This is to say, internship experience after the model of real problem definition, as we suggest, would require the student to analyze their agency experience according to the theories and models learned in the classroom. Parenthetically, a peripheral but not uncommon side effect of this procedure would be that both strengths and weaknesses of the agency practice might be revealed. Therefore, in some instances such examination can be rather sensitive. A sensitivity that is difficult to deal with when it happens because it may be undiscussable in many settings.

In theory both parties are interested in the same issues. The agency wants competent job performance and the purpose of the professional program is to prepare the student with that competence. Any particular job requires certain skills performed and to the extent that those skills are known and measurable (describable), job competence is improved, and the school receives a validational affirmation of their curricula.

Intern experience is the point of integration of theory and practice and of education and professional experience. All theories and institutional goals should find common ground at this point ideally. Evaluation of the process should be divided, appropriately, between the parties; in general, this would mean separate evaluations, each with different emphasis. The school may wish to test for theoretical analysis, the agency for competence in job performance.

A good agency placement is enormously valuable to any educational program, but generally the agency can only afford to provide such cooperation if the labor they get out of the arrangement is greater than the time they must put into it. More positively, the agency should be motivated to welcome such arrangements when they receive competent (and usually free) labor for their

efforts. Each party must understand and respect the needs and the pay-offs of the other.

IV. Summary and Conclusions Regarding the Structure of an Evaluation Instrument for Field Experience

From the foregoing discussion we can derive a set of criteria for structuring an evaluative instrument and process for intern or field experience in the human services profession. The most basic principle we assume is that intern positions reflect a combination of specialized and general experience. Specialized experience in the sense that the program must define specific job positions as defined by the three-parameter model we have described, and general experience reflecting basic skills present in all positions. This assumption is emphasized because specialized job training has not been adequately defined as such up to this time within the profession. The evaluation instrument will then reflect those two basic dimensions. Keeping this principle in mind, criteria which classifies data to be recorded would be as follows: The instrument must: 1) identify the type of institution from the taxonomy of seven items as listed; 2) identify the client type served by the named institution from the taxonomy of five items; 3) identify the job type from the taxonomy of five possible items; 4) identify the skills required by the job type indicated above, identified by two dimensions--a) specialized skills unique to that job as indicated by nos. 1, 2 and 3 above (mainly intervention skills) and b) general skills required by all human services jobs indicated by the BARS instrument designed by NCHSW, 1982; and 5) make provisions for recording the basic data regarding intern identification, evaluator identification, total numbers of hours of training and similar technical data.

Having presented a theory model underlying a general structure for planning and evaluation of field experience we are now ready to examine the

implementation issues.

V. How Does This Model Integrate With Existing Standards and Certification Guidelines Established by Human Services Professional Organizations?

We have discussed a proposed structure for human services training based on the three-parameter model. In addition, there are a number of forces which impact on the training model such as the national standards, which provide guidelines and definitions and which are now proposed for general practice by professional organizations. Correlating these guidelines with our model should indicate the coherence and comprehensiveness of both bodies of concepts.

The following are the major definitional forces that are currently operating in this field:

1. The "Roles and Functions" model developed by the Southern Regional Education Board and found currently in most major textbooks in the field (Mehr, 1982; Dugger, 1982);
2. The National Standards for Human Services Training Programs developed by the Council for Standards in Human Services Education which provide acceptable standards of content, structure, and process for training programs (1979);
3. The certification standards and process as developed by the National Commission for Human Services Workers which leads to a two-stage process of credentialing, namely, registration and certification (1980);
4. The institutional (college) goals, mandate, or mission statements, which provide the context for the program's operations;
5. The training program's goals which provide the specific definition of preparation of workers for certain populations, for specific markets, and

the definition of the models that they use for preparation of those workers.

Field Experience Training Standards

Common to all training programs and required by the national standards is the field experience component (CSHSE, 1980). Field experience is the learning format where the student works in an actual human services setting within the community, performing the various roles and functions of human service workers with a variety of clients in at least two different settings with increasing role responsibility for the control and provision of direct and indirect services to clients. The Council for Standards in Human Service Education requires that this component of the learning experience include exposure to a significant variety of work-roles, clients, and settings to guarantee breadth of exposure. This is necessary because, as we have pointed out, the variety of human service clients and settings is very large and the range of roles engaged in by human service workers is extensive. Furthermore, the national training standards require a minimum number of hours in training field experience, a method for recording and evaluating field performance; structured observations of student behavior, standards of acceptable performance levels, and a method for recording and evaluating whether the critical behavioral indicators are present in the repertoire of the human service worker.

The document entitled "National Standards for Mental Health Human Service Worker Education and Training Programs" (CSHSE, 1980) contains the guidelines for the design and evaluation of human services training programs. It includes the following principles relative to field experience:

"Human service workers use their own experience and personality

for understanding and helping clients."

"Therefore, the training program shall describe what experiences and support it provides to enable students to develop awareness of their own values, personalities, reaction patterns and interpersonal styles."

"Human service workers function as intervening agents; the workers, therefore, must obtain and develop a core of intervention skills and knowledge."

"Field experience is a learning experience in a human services working agency. It is a process of experience learning which integrates the knowledge, skill, and attitudes that are currently being taught in the classroom. Field experience is a critical component of any human service training program."

"A minimum of twelve semester degree hours should be allotted to field experience courses. These degree hours should provide a minimum of 450 clock hours of field placement at the associate degree level and 700 hours at the baccalaureate level."

"Each student shall have a minimum of two substantially different placements, or shall function in significantly different roles in one agency."

"Field experience must provide actual work involvement in the agency and should reflect a gradually widening assumption of responsibilities."

"There should be written agreements with the field agencies that specify the student's role, activities, outcomes, and the arrangement for supervision and field instruction."

These, in summary, are the national guidelines and principles that have

been defined for the field experience component in human services education by CSHSE. Those nationally accepted standards serve as a basis for guiding, reviewing, and approving programs by the Council for Standards in Human Services Education (CSHSE, 1982).

Implications for Certification

Another source of guidance comes from the National Commission for Human Service Workers, the organization that certifies human services workers. They have defined competence as consisting of five domains: Informational, Intellectual, Interpersonal, Intrapersonal, and Interventional (NCHSW, 1983). The first two domains are essentially addressed in formal classroom learning, whether in college or agency in-service training formats. The last three are generally learned and demonstrated in either simulated or real work settings. The Commission provides the following definitions:

1. Interpersonal--relating to others, communication skills, working with others, giving and getting supervision.
2. Intrapersonal--value orientations, attitudes, motivations, personality style and reaction patterns.
3. Interventional--skill and interviewing, helping skills, counseling, listening, consulting, locating resources. The interventional skills are essentially those activities defined by Dr. Arthur Benton and the worker's certification project (Benton, 1979). Those generic human service worker activities comprise the bulk of human services work.

The Commission (NSHSW, 1982) designed a Behaviorally Anchored Rating Scale (BARS) to evaluate the intra, interpersonal, and related components of human services workers. BARS, as the method is nationally known, is an approach to specifying levels of performance. This has the result of making the rating

system more specific and reducing sources of bias by supervisors. It consists of a seven point scaling system on the following eleven dimensions:

1. Understanding clients: their needs and problems
2. Acting in the client's behalf
3. Attitudes about working with clients
4. Communicating and cooperating with other staff
5. Self-awareness and professional development
6. Observing, reporting and recording
7. Responding to crisis, emergencies, and hazards
8. Working with groups of clients
9. Working within a service delivery system
10. Orienting, teaching, consulting with others
11. Giving or getting supervision

It should be clear that none of these statements conflict with the three-parameter model although they are cast at a very general level. By contrast our model calls for job definitions along the lines specified by administrative theory where accountability or responsibility should be defined in terms of a final output, in addition to behavioral skills reflected by the BARS model. These two components (general skills and specific job responsibility) are not in conflict, but rather parts of the whole of job competence, and this point reflects the primary contrast between the three-parameter model and the SREB roles and activities model. Another way of stating this comparison is to repeat again that we believe no professional training program can be cast in terms of general skills only. A data gathering system named TRACKS has been designed around the extensive research sponsored by NIMH and carried out by SREB under the leadership of Dr. Arthur Benton and Dr. Harold McPheeters and the BARS system developed by the National Commission for Human Services

Workers. The work of SREB has thus provided a seminal contribution to the establishment of the human services as a profession, however, we found it somewhat fragmented, needing a more general model to give it coherence. The three-parameter model did not alter in any fundamental way the type of data needed to be gathered for the computerized data gathering system (TRACKS) to be described in another Edic monograph to be published in the near future. TRACKS is easily adapted to refining alterations as the progression of theory and practice occurs. Such refinements have already been made.

Footnotes

1. For instance, the educational psychology branch of the American Psychological Association still struggles to define itself.

2. The criteria for evaluating intern placements are drawn from organizational theory wherein requirements for appropriate job definition, standards of performance, evaluation by appropriate supervisors, scaled measurements, the purpose of the evaluation, and other elements would be identical to those serving professional life. As a matter of fact, a common condition of administrative life is that these evaluations are rather weak for complex positions. Few factors in administrative theory draw so much writing as that of job evaluation. The common complaint we hear from many state agency human service professionals is that their job evaluations are almost meaningless. The paradigm we define here would therefore be adaptable to evaluation of any professional position with minor changes in conception and program.

3. General education (basic skills and knowledges for community and personal survival) is assumed as necessary but beyond the scope of this essay.

4. The assumption is made that any curricular unit would need to be made up from the specification of a particular problem (of the client), treated in a specific type of institution from the standpoint of a particular job type. This type of three parameter paradigm is commonly used to describe a problem in context. See Guilford, Trimble and others.

5. Trimble, J. E., Mackey, D. H. et al., "American Indians, Psychology and Curriculum Development," from Mental Health & People of Color, Howard Univ. Press, Washington, D.C. 1983. Guilford, J. P. The Nature of Human Intelligence, N.Y.: McGraw-Hill, Inc. 1967.

6. We are quite conscious that some agencies simply say, "Tell us what you want the student to learn and we will try to provide that training." Such practice is unsound for several reasons; the principle one being that the intern may or may not end up with a real job-related experience.

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